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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the reasons behind the widespread exclusion of students and graduates with disabilities from higher status (and higher paying) occupations. Models that facilitate identifying and understanding the career expectations and aspirations of high school students and recent graduates with and without disabilities are analyzed. Data were analyzed for 14,830 subjects, members of the 1980 sophomore cohort on whom valid data were available for the base year, first follow-up, and second follow-up of the "High School and Beyond" national longitudinal study. Two major outcome variables were considered. The first set of outcome measures concerned the perceptions of the subjects, who were asked to report what they thought their fathers, mothers, counselors, teachers, and peers felt they should do after high school. The second set of outcomes measured the subjects' career aspirations at age 30. The results illustrate that young people with disabilities have much lower estimates of their chances of obtaining jobs that can lead to higher pay, better conditions, and higher status in the community than do their nondisabled peers. Disabling status made a significant difference in the educational streaming of the students, in the reported career aspirations, and in the perceived expectations of significant others. Students with disabilities reported lower expectations than the nondisabled and seemingly were being supported in their lowered aspirations by parents, teachers, counselors, and friends. (Contains 25 references.) (JDD)

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Chapter 2

# Career Expectations and Aspirations of Youth with and without Disabilities

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RUNNING HEAD: Career Expectations

EC 301 475

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**Career Expectations and Aspirations of**

**Youth with and without Disabilities**

The importance attached to employment in our society goes far beyond providing individuals and their families with an income. For example, Jahoda (1979) and Sarason (1977) suggested that our personal identities develop not only from being members of the workforce but also from the particular occupations we hold.

Consideration of the occupational choices made by the nation's youth raises questions about the connection between how a person is socialized into the worker-social identity relationship valued by society and the types of expectations that are communicated to them about their worker roles. Additional factors associated with job choice appear to systematically exclude some groups, such as those with disabilities.

The employment problems specific to persons with disabilities are profound. Citing data from the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, Will (1984) noted that between 50 and 80% of working-age adults who report a disability are jobless. Bowe (1980) reported that 76% of all women with disabilities are unemployed. Other studies have cited unemployment rates ranging from 39% for persons with disabilities (Buzzell & Martin, 1978) to 64% for persons with disabilities out of school for at least six months (Branch & Hodick, 1976).

In a statewide follow-up survey in Colorado, Mithaug, Horiuchi, and Fanning (1985) found that 69% of the respondents with disabilities were working. When part-time work was excluded from the analysis, however, the employment rate dropped to 37%. Hasazi et al. (1985) reported similar results for a statewide survey of persons with disabilities in Vermont. Employment for their sample was 55%, but when only full-time employment status was reported, the rate fell to 37%.

The employment experiences of persons with disabilities are of substantial interest beyond the concern about the nature of the jobs they fill. Thus, their earnings and benefits

are other indicators of how successfully they have made the transition to employment and of how they fare compared to their peers without disabilities.

In each of these areas, persons with disabilities are much worse off than their nondisabled counterparts. In an extensive review of the literature on persons with disabilities, Harnisch, Chaplin, Fisher, and Tu (1986) examined the employment outcomes for youth in transition from high school. Across the 89 articles reviewed, persons with disabilities were more likely to hold lower status jobs, be paid less, and have fewer fringe benefits and less job security and satisfaction than nondisabled peers. Indeed only Cook (1976) reported that individuals with disabilities were able to hold jobs of significant status and income. Thus, in his Wisconsin study of persons with visual impairments, 21% of the sample had been able to obtain jobs in professional, technical, managerial, or official fields.

Harnisch, Lichtenstein, and Langford (1986) compared the employment experiences of members of the 1980 sophomore cohort from the High School and Beyond longitudinal survey (Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education, 1986). In their first jobs after high school, persons with disabilities were more likely to hold jobs as craftspersons, operatives (except transport), laborers, service workers, or domestics than their nondisabled counterparts. The most common occupations for both groups were in the service industries, followed by clerical positions.

In a number of studies (e.g., Gregory, Shanahan, & Walberg, 1984, 1985a, b, 1986; Harnisch, Lichtenstein, & Langford, 1986) the subjects were students with disabilities who had been mainstreamed in normal classes of their high schools, suggesting that they were capable of performing successfully among their nondisabled peers. Yet, their occupational achievements were much lower than those of their nondisabled counterparts. Such findings prompt questions of the extent to which these students are being systematically excluded from access to occupations: Do their developmental processes lower their occupational expectations and aspirations, or do these students receive messages of lower expectations?

**Career Development**

Many developmental theorists (e.g., Erikson, 1950; Gould, 1978; Havighurst, 1953; Levinson, 1986; Vaillant, 1977) emphasize the interaction between our physical development and the social demands and expectations placed upon us. Thus, these theorists believe that the culture helps mould the direction of the social development associated with the physical changes.

Feldman (1987) integrated a number of developmental career development approaches into two career-stage models. This integrated approach aligns physiological changes that occur throughout adulthood with social expectations that are embodied in a career line. Feldman believed this integration serves to make "salient the constraints that biological aging and family growth put on career development" (p. 231).

According to Feldman (1987), the early career stage for individuals ranging in age from 15 to 22 years is a period of "pre-career" exploration for finding the right tasks and gaining identity and direction as a worker. As with other developmentalists (e.g., Erikson, 1950; Levinson, 1986), Feldman sees it as a time for establishing a path to be followed in selecting and pursuing a career, although the path can be redirected later in life.

Feldman (1987) does not specify the manner in which career choices occur. The role of the family is only one of the factors that has an impact on the career selection and aspirations of young people. However, it may be particularly salient for students with disabilities who are attempting to find their autonomous directions in the adult world.

A number of theories of career selection and development may be used to explain how and why people choose certain career directions and why they may amend these later in life. Brown (1984) reviewed eight such theories in terms of their explanatory and predictive power in career choices. These theories range from those attempting to explain the career choices of one individual to those that place career choices within the wider framework of life stages (viz. Feldman, 1987).

A broader explanation of career development and selection was advanced by Super (1984), who tied career development to changes in career life stages. According to Super, there are changes occurring within the individual that will have a significant impact on the directions and choices made in careers. Further, rejecting a unified theory, Super maintained that career choice is impacted by many factors: "developmental, differential, social, and phenomenological psychology...held together by self-concept or personal construct theory" (p. 194).

Thus, implicit in Super's (1984) ideas is the recognition of sociological differences that constrain the career choices and aspirations of groups of people. This combination of factors provides a more comprehensive view of how careers are chosen and expectations conveyed, both socially and within the family. An examination of these factors may lead to identification about individuals who are excluded from certain career choices for reasons other than their abilities to do those jobs.

The purpose of this paper was to examine the reasons behind the widespread exclusion of students and graduates with disabilities from higher status (and higher paying) occupations. Models that facilitate identifying and understanding the career expectations and aspirations of students and recent graduates with and without disabilities have been constructed. Such models may help ensure that mainstreamed students receive the full benefits of the education available to them and thereby experience the social benefits and recognition that employment in our society provides (Jahoda, 1979; Jones, 1984).

## Method

### Subjects

Data were analyzed for 14,830 subjects, members of the 1980 sophomore cohort on whom valid data were available for the base year, first follow-up, and second follow-up of the High School and Beyond (Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U. S. Department of Education, 1986) longitudinal national survey. High School and Beyond (HSB) is a national longitudinal study of senior and sophomore cohorts in 1980, which is

re-sampled every two years. Subjects were selected through a two-stage probability sample with schools as the first stage and students as the second stage unit. Retention of subjects for the follow-up years was based on a complex sampling plan to preserve policy-relevant groups and to minimize losses in statistical efficiency.

The 1980 sophomore cohort was selected for this study because of the availability of demographic, psychological, and achievement measures in each of the years. This group was going through the young-adult transition and, therefore, would be expected to be engaged in career seeking and planning.

Outcome Measures

Two major outcome variables were considered. The first set of outcome measures concerned the perceptions of the subjects, who were asked to report what they thought their fathers, mothers, counselors, teachers, and peers felt they should do after high school (e.g., college, full-time work, apprenticeship/trade). Differences in their perception of these expectations were predicted between the students with disabilities and the nondisabled subjects.

The second set of outcomes measured the subjects' career aspirations at age 30. In each of the three survey periods (base year, first and second follow-up), the subjects were asked to indicate their career expectations, which was considered the best measure of their aspirations and goals. Responses to this question were also considered a variable that would differentiate between youth with disabilities and their nondisabled peers.

The original 19 response categories to the career aspiration question were recoded into 11 discrete values that captured the variety of potential work experiences: high status professionals (e.g., doctor, attorney), lower status professionals (e.g., accountant, nurse), technical, manager/proprietor, school teacher, clerical/sales, operative (e.g., meat cutters, truck drivers), military, farmers, service workers, and not in the workforce. Occupations held by the subjects' mothers and fathers were recoded in a similar manner. This recoding

did not place the responses into a rank ordering or presuppose a standard metric for scaling differences in status levels for the occupations.

Predictive Measures

A number of predictive measures were included in constructing the career aspiration models based on the theoretical perspectives discussed earlier. For example, measures of gender, socioeconomic status, and race are variables that have been shown to be related to career outcomes (e.g., Brown, 1984). Also included were variables related to subjects' families (Feldman, 1987). In this way, mothers' and fathers' occupations (recoded as described above) and parents' education levels were incorporated.

Among the many potential areas of influence on career decision making (e.g., Super, 1984), psychological and educational variables were analyzed in this study. Locus of control and self-concept measures were available from the base year and the first follow-up for all subjects. Students' high school grades (GPAs) and educational program (general, academic, or vocational) as well as a composite score on tests of mathematics, reading, and vocabulary were used to establish subjects' ability levels.

The final predictor was a composite handicapped variable, constructed by including all those students who had self-reported that they had learning disabilities, hearing impairments, deafness, orthopedic impairments, speech disabilities, or other health impairment, or who felt they had a physical condition that would limit them in future work or education. The self-report of visually disabled was excluded because of evidence that many whose visual impairment required only that they wear corrective glasses responded positively to this question, instead of those for whom their vision problems presented limiting physical conditions.

## Results

The sample characteristics for gender and disabling status are summarized in Table 1 for the sophomore cohort during their base year ($N$ = 13,507) and again when they were seniors

(N = 12,358). The percentage of disabling youth drops from 19% of the sample during the base year to 14% of the sample during the senior follow-up, indicating a high dropout rate.

Base year characteristics on race and urbanicity for the sample are also reported by disabling status in Table 1. Approximately 10% of the sample were identified as white and

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Insert Table 1 About Here

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disabled; an additional 5% were Hispanic and disabled. Within each of the ethnicity categories, 80 or more subjects reported having a disability. No apparent differences were noted in the percentage of youth with disabilities by community type (urban, suburban, or rural).

Figure 1 illustrates the percentages of youth with and without disabilities in educational programs. The same percentages for each group were represented in the general program. However, substantial differences in the percentages appeared in the academic and vocational programs, with a higher percentage of nondisabled students in the academic stream and a higher percentage of youth with disabilities in the vocational streams.

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Insert Figure 1 About Here

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The observed and expected frequencies for each of the 11 career aspiration categories were examined for disabling status levels (see Table 2). Aspirations were compared for the groups at the three time frames of sophomore, senior, and senior plus 2 years, and the results are illustrated in Figure 2. Table 2 demonstrates a differential pattern of aspirations for the youth with disabilities compared with the nondisabled. Not only do the chi-square values between disabling status and career aspirations show a significant dependency at each of the three survey periods (113.29, 97.15, and 97.12), these differences are stable for the

observed and expected frequencies among the aspiration levels. The data presented in Table 2 demonstrate a divergence from expected values in several occupational categories.

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For the sample of youth with disabilities, the lower and higher status professional occupations and technical careers yielded observed frequencies that were far lower than expected. The opposite was found for the nondisabled sample who demonstrated higher observed frequencies than would be expected. The reverse is seen in the operatives, service, and especially in the laborer job categories. Here a far greater number of observations were noted for youth with disabilities than would be expected—far fewer for nondisabled youth.

The statistical analyses of the categories of school teacher, business (managerial, proprietor), and sales/clerical were more equivocal. As sophomores, more of the subjects with disabilities than expected aspired to be teachers, businesspeople, or in sale/clerical positions. Such responses declined in the two later surveys, however, to near or lower than expected levels. For the nondisabled, the reverse trend was evidenced.

**Expectations of Parents and Others**

Students' perceptions of the post-high school expectations of their parents and others are presented in Table 3 for the sophomore and senior survey periods. (The total is less than 100% because the "does not apply" responses have been deleted.) Students' perceptions illustrate a number of important differences within and between groups.

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Insert Table 3 About Here

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For example, subjects with disabilities perceived the expectation to attend college from all their significant others less often than did the nondisabled peers. Similarly, the subjects with disabilities perceived the expectation to get full-time jobs immediately after high school more often than did the nondisabled in the sophomore survey. A distinction must be made between parents' expectations and those of other adults. Parents were perceived having far higher expectations of college attendance (for both samples) than were counselors, teachers, or friends. Mothers' expectations were highest of all. Perceived teacher and counselor expectations were almost identical across all potential outcomes—with a noted increase in expected college attendance at the senior survey period.

**Discriminant Analysis of Career Aspirations**

The discriminant-analysis procedure involved inserting the comprehensive scores derived from the background and psychological scales (cognitive and affective domains) as independent measures in a multivariate analysis of variance. Where significant multivariate F-ratios were found, a multigroup stepwise discriminant-function analysis was performed.

The grouping variables examined were the 11 aspiration groups, and the minimum F-ratio for any variable to enter the analysis was set at 1.0. For the subjects as sophomores, significant differences ($p < .001$) were obtained among the 11 career aspiration groups based on the multivariate analysis of variance. Two discriminant functions produced in the analysis were significant ($p < .001$). These functions accounted for 92% of the explained variance in the career-aspiration predictor variables and had a canonical correlation with career aspirations of .54. Disabling status did not contribute to the variance of the predictor variables.

The standardized discriminant weights, given in Table 4, indicated that the first function comprised gender (.73), academic education program (.46), and grade point average (.32)—referred to as the "academic-versus-vocational training program." The second discriminant

function was most heavily weighted in the negative direction by gender (-.84) and whites (-.13), while revealing a strong positive weight from parents' education (.21), academic program (.41), and test composite performance (.24). The second function is referred to as the "educational orientation."

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Insert Table 4 About Here

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The centroids for the 11 career-aspiration groups on each of the significant discriminant functions are listed in the lower half of Table 4 and displayed in Figure 3. The groups with the highest centroids on the first discriminant function are those aspiring to be school teachers and as members of lower and upper professional groups. The groups aspiring to be operatives and laborers were found on the far left side of this first dimension, whereas those wanting to be in the military were about half way along the negative side of the first function. The centroids on the second function demonstrated the distinction between the sales, service, and not-working groups compared to the upper status and technical groups.

The multivariate profile of the 11 career groups shows a rather coherent picture of four major subgroups of career aspirations: (a) professional (1, 2, & 4); (b) technical & business/

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military (3, 5 and square legend); (c) operatives and laborers (6 & 9); and (d) sales and service joined by the not-working group (7, 8 and "N" legend).

The centroids for the cohort as seniors (see Table 5), and again at seniors plus 2 years (see Table 6), were similar to those reported for them as sophomores. As seniors, a slight increase was noted in the weights for function I, and for the seniors plus 2 years slight changes in the centroids. This may be indicative of changes resulting from work experience.

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Insert Table 5 About Here

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Insert Table 6 About Here

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**Discussion**

The results of this study provide a rather disturbing picture of the career expectancies of youth with disabilities. As illustrated, these young people have much lower estimates of their chances of obtaining jobs that can lead to higher pay, better conditions, and higher status in the community than do their nondisabled peers. This situation is not just a result of having a disability. The discriminant-function procedure demonstrated that the presence or absence of a disability was not a significant factor in the aspirations of the youth. Instead, the same factors influenced the choice of career: the "academic-versus-vocational orientation" and the "educational orientation." For both groups, and across all three survey periods, the same component variables were found to contribute approximately the same amount of variance: the demographic and achievement variables that typically appear in the literature on career aspirations.

Because the groups with and with disabilities did not differ on the variables contributing to their career-aspiration patterns, other reasons must be sought when differences in actual

career choices appear. As indicated in Table 2, the groups hold quite different career aspirations, with relative stability over the four years of data collection. However, when other factors are examined, there are great divergencies between the groups.

Figure 1 illustrates differences in the education the groups receive, that is, youth with disabilities are far more likely to be found in vocational education programs while their nondisabled peers are enrolled in academic preparation streams. This finding relates to the first of the discriminant functions, which distinguishes professionals and teachers from laborers, operatives, and military personnel.

Such findings raise questions about the streaming that is used for youth with disabilities. Specifically, if placed into vocational preparation classes as a part of their transition planning, they may be denied access to opportunities associated with higher status and better paying occupations. Thus, educational streaming deserves serious consideration, especially because of the resulting labeling of youth with disabilities.

This latter point is supported by the findings related to perceived expectations communicated to students. Table 3 shows the expectations that the students received as sophomores and seniors. As illustrated, consistent differences exist between the two groups on all expectations, with the higher expectations being conveyed to the nondisabled. In addition, the expectations communicated by teachers and counselors are particularly low. These are the people who usually decide the stream into which students are placed. If streaming has occurred by the time the students are sophomores, they may be trapped into a lower status stream for the rest of their lives.

## Summary

The analyses of the career aspirations of the youth in the High School and Beyond survey have revealed some unexpected consistency among their career aspirations and the relative importance of the factors in the discriminant analyses. For each of the years analyzed, the same two factors were evident with almost the same weights from the factors that loaded on them, with minor variations, from year to year.

In none of these years did disabling status enter into the loadings as a significant factor predicting differences in occupational aspirations. Disabling status did make a significant difference, however, in the educational streaming of the students, in the reported career aspirations, and in the perceived expectations of significant others. In these areas, the students with disabilities reported lower expectations than the nondisabled, and seemingly were being supported in their lowered aspirations by those around them (parents, teachers, counselors, friends).

Because these were mainstreamed students with disabilities, questions arise about the nature of the education and support they receive in their schools and in their homes. Being mainstreamed, these students are presumably capable of progressing with their peers in the educational system. Yet, they appear systematically to be undervalued for careers that have higher status and worth in society. Although there is evidence to suggest that the disabled groups do not achieve as well in the academic settings as the nondisabled, there is also the possibility that they receive the message that they are not expected to do well, and that they are not challenged to succeed (e.g., Gregory, Shanahan, & Walberg, 1984, 1986). If that is indeed the case, we need to re-evaluate the place of students with disabilities in the educational system, and the impact the system has on their development and growth.

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Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of Sample by Sex, Ethnicity and Community Type (High School and Beyond-1980 Sophomore Cohort)

| | Sophomore (Base Year) | | | | | | Senior (Follow-up) | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Disabled | | Non-disabled | | Total | | Disabled | | Non-disabled | | Total | |
| Sex | n | % | n | % | n | % | n | % | n | % | n | % |
| Male | 1363 | 10 | 5312 | 39 | 6675 | 49 | 972 | 8 | 5029 | 41 | 6001 | 49 |
| Female | 1208 | 9 | 5724 | 42 | 6932 | 51 | 740 | 6 | 5617 | 45 | 6357 | 51 |

| | Disabled | | Nondisabled | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ethnicity* | n | % | n | % | n | % |
| Hispanic | 705 | 5.2 | 2277 | 16.8 | 2982 | 22.0 |
| American Indian | 80 | 0.6 | 181 | 1.3 | 261 | 1.9 |
| Asian American | 87 | 0.6 | 290 | 2.1 | 377 | 2.7 |
| Black | 411 | 3.0 | 1431 | 10.6 | 1842 | 13.6 |
| White | 1283 | 9.5 | 6818 | 50.3 | 8101 | 59.8 |
| Community Type* | | | | | | |
| Urban | 639 | 5 | 2550 | 19 | 3189 | 23 |
| Suburban | 1205 | 9 | 5659 | 42 | 6864 | 50 |
| Rural | 727 | 5 | 2827 | 21 | 3554 | 27 |

*Note: Based on the data from the follow-up time point, senior reported data.

Table 2

Aspirations for Disabled and Nondisabled Youth as Sophomore, Senior and Two Years Beyond High School (High School and Beyond-1980 Sophomore Cohort)

| Aspiration | Sophomore | | | | Senior | | | | Senior +2 Years | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Disabled | | Nondisabled | | Disabled | | Nondisabled | | N-H/C | | H/C | |
| N-H/C | $f_o$ | $f_e$ | $f_o$ | $f_e$ | $f_o$ | $f_e$ | $f_o$ | $f_e$ | $f_o$ | $f_e$ | $f_o$ | $f_e$ |
| 1. Upper prof | 265 | 350 | 1594 | 1510 | 140 | 176 | 1153 | 1116 | 128 | 141 | 904 | 891 |
| 2. Lower prof | 515 | 612 | 2741 | 2644 | 390 | 459 | 2964 | 2895 | 291 | 352 | 2286 | 2225 |
| 3. Technical | 171 | 181 | 791 | 781 | 178 | 183 | 1156 | 1152 | 133 | 134 | 848 | 847 |
| 4. Teacher | 71 | 63 | 263 | 271 | 40 | 50 | 327 | 317 | 53 | 69 | 436 | 422 |
| 5. Business | 189 | 179 | 762 | 772 | 187 | 194 | 1234 | 1227 | 238 | 267 | 1715 | 1686 |
| 6. Operatives | 400 | 316 | 1278 | 1363 | 267 | 199 | 1191 | 1259 | 262 | 181 | 1065 | 1146 |
| 7. Sales/clerical | 263 | 247 | 1053 | 1069 | 160 | 169 | 1078 | 1069 | 182 | 198 | 1270 | 1254 |
| 8. Service | 99 | 95 | 406 | 410 | 78 | 66 | 402 | 414 | 68 | 58 | 354 | 364 |
| 9. Laborer | 140 | 108 | 435 | 467 | 91 | 58 | 329 | 363 | 94 | 59 | 334 | 370 |
| 10. Military | 84 | 80 | 341 | 345 | 50 | 40 | 244 | 254 | 34 | 38 | 227 | 225 |
| 11. Not working | 87 | 54 | 199 | 232 | 26 | 12 | 63 | 77 | 25 | 16 | 91 | 100 |
| Totals | 2284 | | 9863 | | 1607 | | 10141 | | 1508 | | 9530 | |
| Chi-Square | | 113.29* | | | | 97.15* | | | | 97.12* | | |

Table 3

Perceived Expectations of Parents and Significant Others for Disabled and Nondisabled Youth - 1980 Sophomore Cohort as Sophomore and Seniors

| SOPHOMORE | Father | | Mother | | Counselor | | Teacher | | Friends | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Expectation | Disabled % | Non-disabled % | Disabled % | Non-disabled % | Disabled % | Non-disabled % | Disabled % | Non-disabled % | Disabled % | Non-disabled % |
| Go to college | 49 | 60 | 58 | 69 | 27 | 30 | 30 | 32 | 35 | 42 |
| Full-time job | 15 | 10 | 15 | 10 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 16 | 10 |
| Trade/apprentice | 6 | 5 | 7 | 6 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 5 | 3 |
| Military | 4 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 3 |
| They don't care | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 7 | 6 | 10 | 10 |
| I don't know | 14 | 13 | 11 | 9 | 47 | 50 | 44 | 50 | 26 | 28 |
| Chi-Square | 118.81* | | 106.31* | | 98.64* | | 105.74* | | 121.38* | |

*$p < .001$.

Table 3 (continued)

| SENIOR | Father | | Mother | | Counselor | | Teacher | | Friends | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Dis-abled | Non-dis-abled | Dis-abled | Non-dis-abled | Dis-abled | Non-dis-abled | Dis-abled | Non-dis-abled | Dis-abled | Non-dis-abled |
| Expectation | % | % | % | % | % | % | % | % | % | % |
| Go to college | 54 | 65 | 61 | 73 | 51 | 59 | 50 | 55 | 49 | 59 |
| Full-time job | 14 | 8 | 14 | 9 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 13 | 10 |
| Trade/apprentice | 8 | 7 | 9 | 8 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 6 | 5 |
| Military | 5 | 4 | 5 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 2 |
| They don't care | 3 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 5 | 4 | 6 | 6 | 7 | 6 |
| I don't know | 9 | 7 | 5 | 4 | 26 | 24 | 26 | 27 | 16 | 14 |
| Chi-Square | 79.92* | | 82.46* | | .87.93* | | 69.14* | | 54.18* | |

*$p < .001$.

Table 4

Standardized Canonical Coefficients for Discriminating Variables in Career Aspirations and Associated Centroids for 11 Aspiration Groups (High School and Beyond 1980)

Sophomore

| Variable | Discriminant Function | |
|---|---|---|
| | I | II |
| Disability Status | 0.02 | 0.00 |
| Mother's occupation | 0.06 | 0.06 |
| Father's occupation | 0.16 | 0.07 |
| Parent's education | 0.07 | 0.21 |
| SES quartiles | 0.13 | -0.06 |
| Male | 0.73 | -0.84 |
| White | -0.08 | -0.13 |
| Hispanic | 0.08 | 0.01 |
| Black | 0.11 | 0.11 |
| Asian American | 0.05 | 0.04 |
| Grade point average | 0.32 | 0.10 |
| General education program | 0.16 | 0.15 |
| Academic education program | 0.46 | 0.41 |
| Vocational education program | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| Self-concept | 0.01 | -0.09 |
| Locus of control | 0.11 | 0.14 |
| Work orientation | 0.04 | 0.05 |
| Test battery quartile | 0.17 | 0.24 |

Table 4 (continued)

| Career Aspiration | Discriminant Function | |
|---|---|---|
| | I | II |
| Lower status professional | 0.38 | 0.07 |
| Upper status professional | 0.69 | 0.45 |
| Technical | -0.15 | 0.39 |
| School teacher | 0.64 | -0.51 |
| Business | -0.19 | 0.11 |
| Operatives | -1.19 | 0.18 |
| Sales/clerical | 0.10 | -1.03 |
| Service | 0.01 | -1.25 |
| Laborer | -1.33 | 0.00 |
| Military | -0.68 | -0.43 |
| Not working | -0.14 | -0.81 |

Table 5

Standardized Canonical Coefficients for Discriminating Variables in Career Aspirations and Associated Centroids for 11 Aspiration Groups (High School and Beyond 1980)

Senior

| Variable | Discriminant Function | |
|---|---|---|
| | I | II |
| Disability Status | 0.00 | 0.03 |
| Mother's occupation | 0.04 | 0.02 |
| Father's occupation | 0.11 | 0.03 |
| Parent's education | 0.08 | 0.05 |
| SES quartiles | 0.17 | 0.04 |
| Male | 0.37 | -0.96 |
| White | -0.14 | -0.35 |
| Hispanic | 0.07 | -0.18 |
| Black | 0.16 | -0.05 |
| Asian American | 0.08 | -0.04 |
| Grade point average | 0.27 | -0.07 |
| General education program | 0.27 | 0.09 |
| Academic education program | 0.59 | 0.21 |
| Vocational education program | 0.00 | -0.00 |
| Self-concept | -0.02 | -0.10 |
| Locus of control | 0.10 | -0.06 |
| Work orientation | 0.11 | 0.05 |
| Test battery quartile | 0.39 | 0.24 |

Table 5 (continued)

| Career Aspiration | Discriminant Function | |
|---|---|---|
| | I | II |
| Lower status professional | 0.72 | 0.29 |
| Upper status professional | 0.39 | 0.01 |
| Technical | -0.07 | 0.17 |
| School teacher | 0.31 | -0.57 |
| Business | -0.09 | 0.08 |
| Operatives | -1.26 | 0.51 |
| Sales/clerical | -0.45 | -1.00 |
| Service | -0.59 | -1.45 |
| Laborer | -1.26 | 0.35 |
| Military | -0.65 | 0.70 |
| Not working | -0.89 | 0.15 |

Table 6

Standardized Canonical Coefficients for Discriminating Variables in Career Aspirations and Associated Centroids for 11 Aspiration Groups (High School and Beyond 1980)

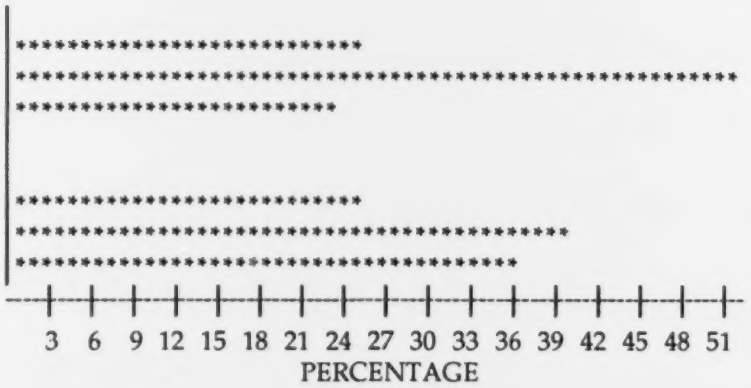
Senior + 2 Years

| Variable | Discriminant Function | |
|---|---|---|
| | I | II |
| Disabled | -0.01 | 0.08 |
| Mother's occupation | 0.06 | 0.04 |
| Father's occupation | 0.11 | 0.02 |
| Parent's education | 0.13 | 0.16 |
| SES quartiles | 0.19 | -0.07 |
| Gender | 0.47 | -0.96 |
| White | 0.01 | -0.18 |
| Hispanic | 0.15 | -0.07 |
| Black | 0.21 | 0.03 |
| Asian American | 0.12 | 0.04 |
| Grade point average | 0.24 | 0.13 |
| General education program | 0.12 | 0.16 |
| Academic education program | 0.44 | 0.32 |
| Vocational education program | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| Self-concept | -0.01 | -0.09 |
| Locus of control | 0.13 | 0.03 |
| Work orientation | 0.05 | 0.08 |
| Test battery quartile | 0.35 | 0.12 |

Table 6 (continued)

| Career Aspiration | Discriminant Function | |
|---|---|---|
| | I | II |
| Lower status professional | 0.37 | -0.01 |
| Upper status professional | 0.70 | 0.44 |
| Technical | -0.13 | 0.25 |
| School teacher | 0.39 | -0.35 |
| Business | 0.00 | 0.13 |
| Operatives | -1.21 | 0.40 |
| Sales/clerical | -0.19 | -0.87 |
| Service | -0.37 | -1.10 |
| Laborer | -1.38 | 0.25 |
| Military | -0.50 | 0.63 |
| Not working | -0.87 | -0.85 |

Figure 1. Percentage of disabled and nondisabled youth enrolled in high school study programs.




| DISABILITY STATUS | HIGH SCHOOL STUDY PROGRAM | Freq | Cum Freq | Per-cent | Cum Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Nondisabled | | | | | |
| General | ********** | 2780 | 2780 | 25.23 | 25.23 |
| Academic | ********** | 5592 | 8372 | 50.75 | 75.98 |
| VoTech | ********** | 2646 | 11018 | 24.02 | 100.00 |
| Disabled | | | | | |
| General | ********** | 647 | 647 | 25.23 | 25.23 |
| Academic | ********** | 992 | 1639 | 38.69 | 63.92 |
| VoTech | ********** | 925 | 2564 | 36.08 | 100.00 |

Note. From High School and Beyond 1980 Sophomore Cohort Second Follow-up Data File User's Manual, 1986, Washington, DC: National Center for Educational Statistics.

Figure 2. Career aspirations reported by sophomores, seniors, and seniors +2 years.

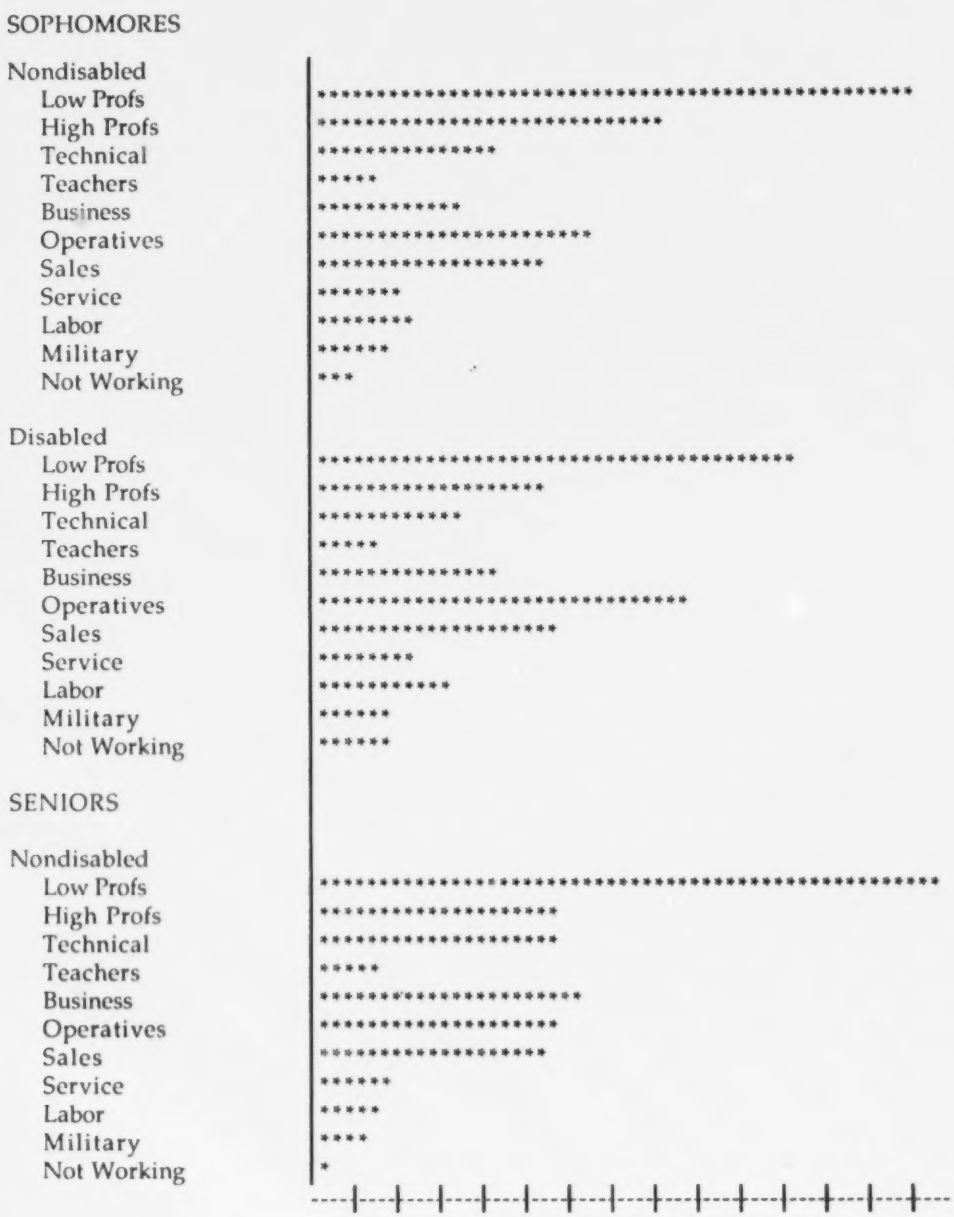


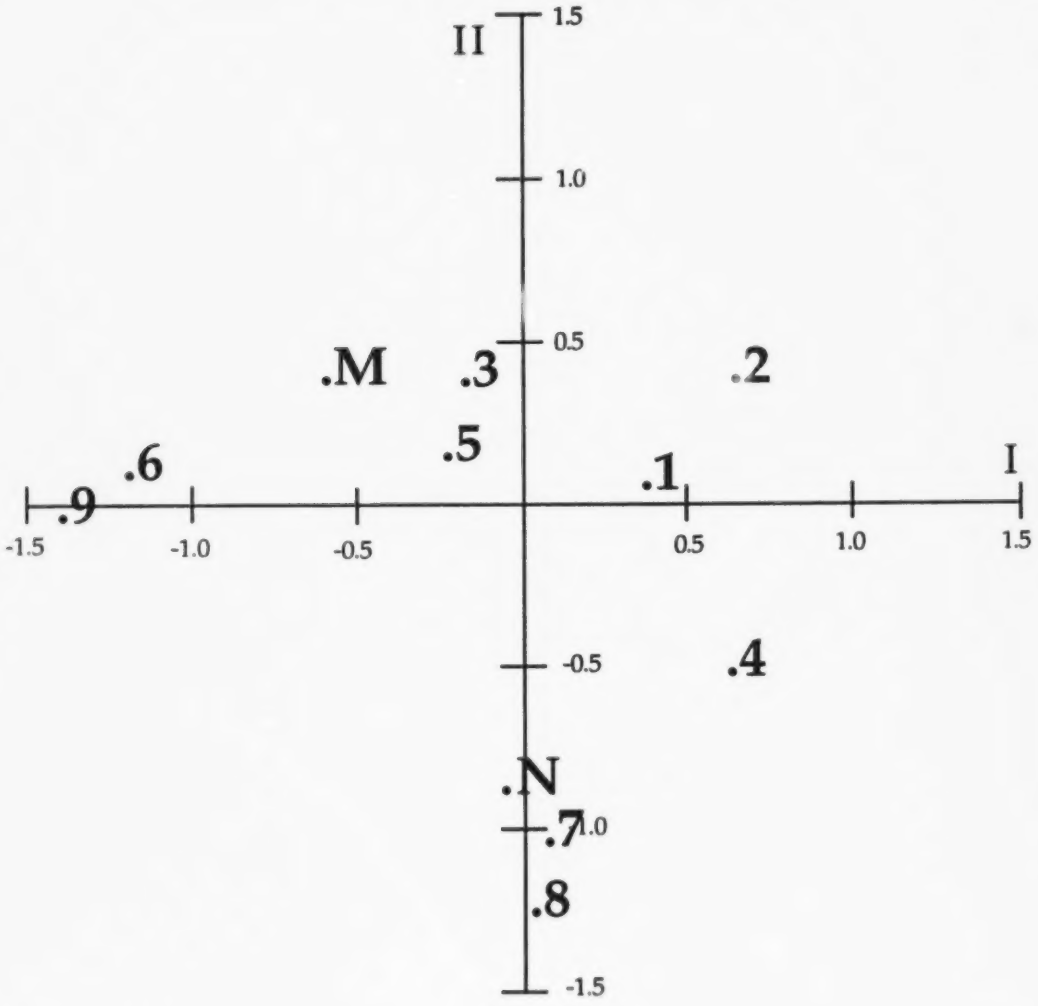
Figure 2 (continued

| | Freq | Percent | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Disabled | | | |
| Low Profs | ********** | 390 | 24.27 |
| High Profs | ********** | 140 | 8.71 |
| Technical | ********** | 178 | 11.08 |
| Teachers | **** | 40 | 2.49 |
| Business | ********** | 187 | 11.64 |
| Operatives | ********** | 267 | 16.61 |
| Sales | ********** | 160 | 9.96 |
| Service | ******* | 78 | 4.85 |
| Labor | ******** | 91 | 5.66 |
| Military | ***** | 50 | 3.11 |
| Not Working | ** | 26 | 1.62 |
| SENIORS PLUS 2 YEARS | | | |
| Nondisabled | | | |
| Low Profs | ********** | 2286 | 23.99 |
| High Profs | ********** | 904 | 9.49 |
| Technical | ********** | 848 | 8.90 |
| Teachers | ******** | 436 | 4.58 |
| Business | ********** | 1715 | 18.00 |
| Operatives | ********** | 1065 | 11.18 |
| Sales | ********** | 1270 | 13.33 |
| Service | ***** | 354 | 3.71 |
| Labor | ***** | 334 | 3.50 |
| Military | **** | 227 | 2.38 |
| Not Working | * | 91 | 0.95 |
| Disabled | | | |
| Low Profs | ********** | 291 | 19.30 |
| High Profs | ********** | 128 | 8.49 |
| Technical | ********** | 133 | 8.82 |
| Teachers | ****** | 53 | 3.51 |
| Business | ********** | 238 | 15.78 |
| Operatives | ********** | 262 | 17.37 |
| Sales | ********** | 182 | 12.07 |
| Service | ******** | 68 | 4.51 |
| Labor | ********** | 94 | 6.23 |
| Military | **** | 34 | 2.25 |
| Not Working | ** | 25 | 1.66 |

2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16 18 20 22 24 26 28
PERCENTAGE

Note. From High School and Beyond 1980 Sophomore Cohort Second Follow-up Data File User's Manual, 1986, Washington, DC: National Center for Educational Statistics.

Figure 3. Career aspirations as sophomores.

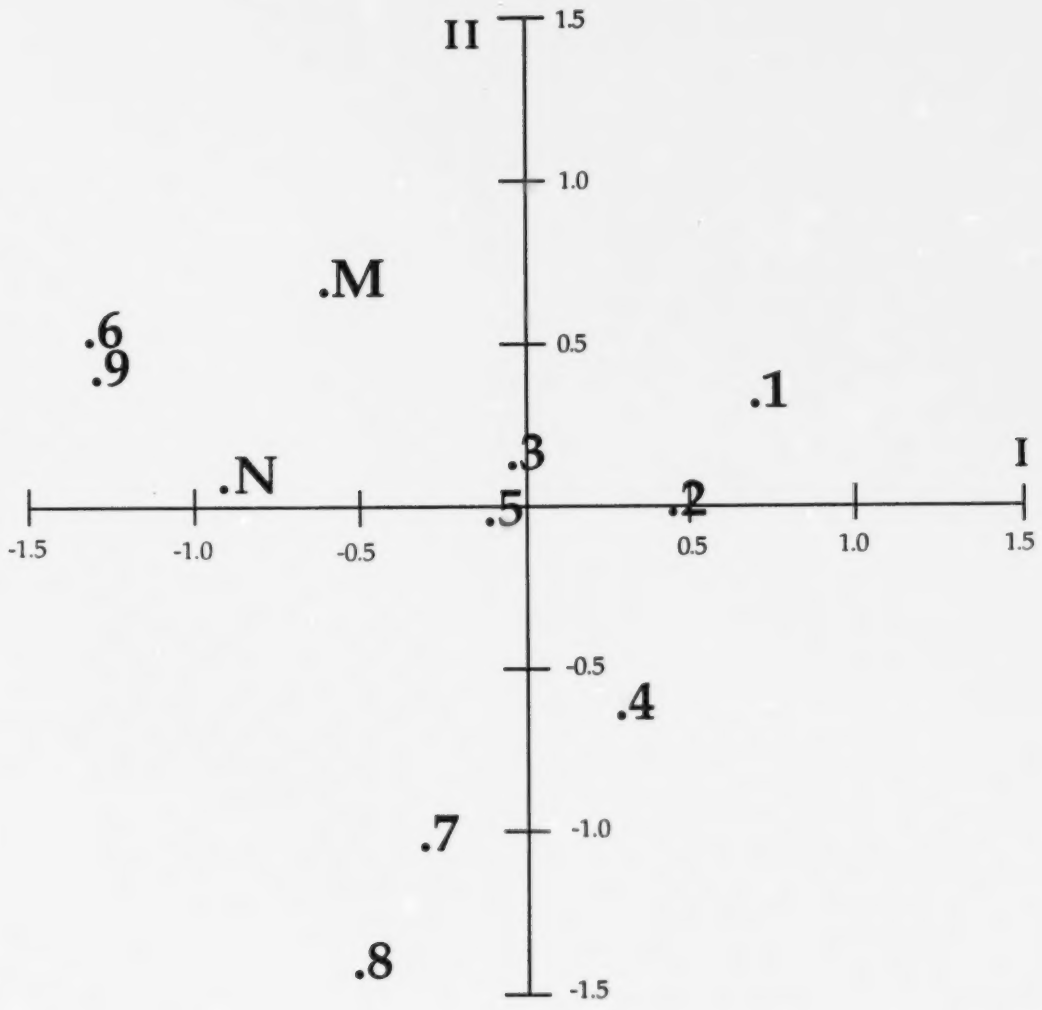



## Legend

1 = Low-Status Professionals
2 = High-Status Professionals
3 = Technical
4 = Teachers
5 = Business
6 = Operatives
7 = Sales
8 = Service
9 = Labor
M = Military
N = Not Working

Note. From High School and Beyond 1980 Sophomore Cohort Second Follow-up Data File User's Manual, 1986, Washington, DC: National Center for Educational Statistics.

Figure 4. Career aspirations as seniors.

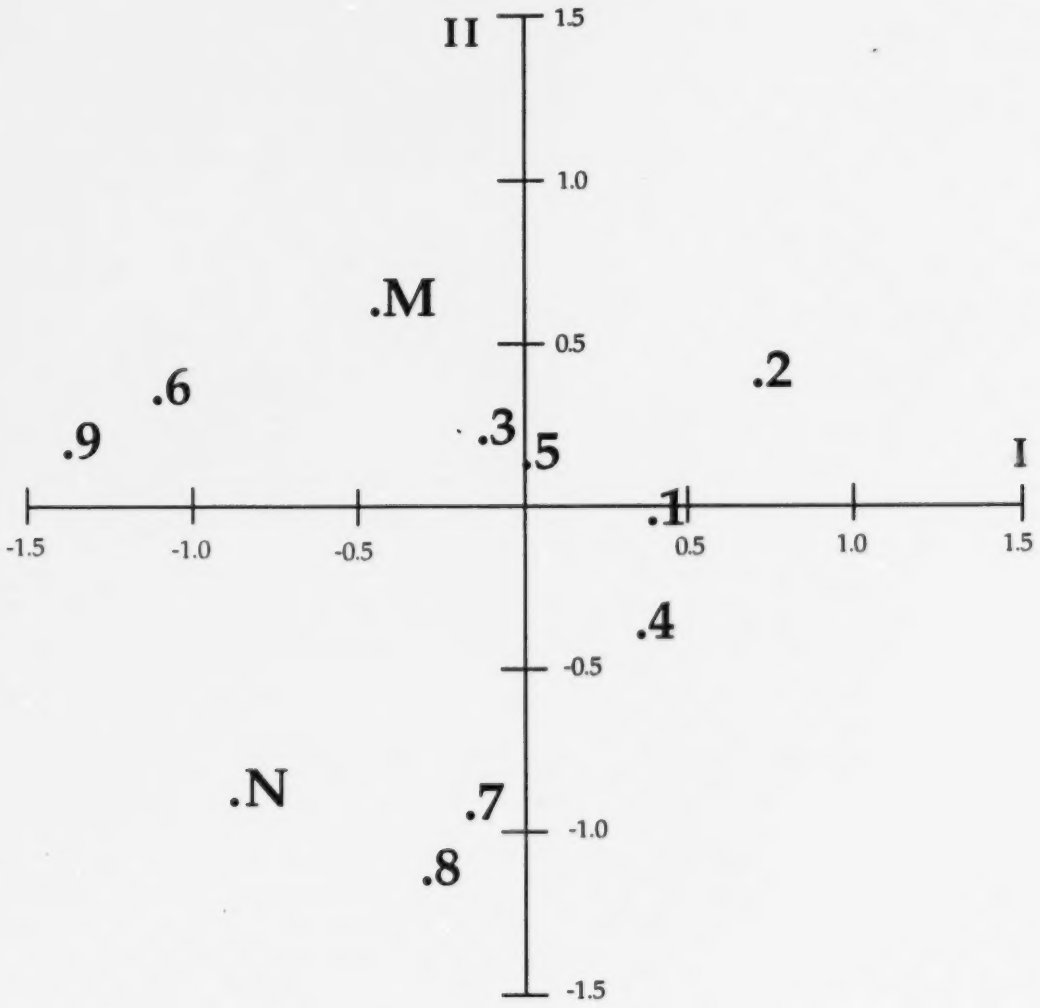



## Legend

1 = Low-Status Professionals
2 = High-Status Professionals
3 = Technical
4 = Teachers
5 = Business
6 = Operatives
7 = Sales
8 = Service
9 = Labor
M = Military
N = Not Working

Note. From High School and Beyond 1980 Sophomore Cohort Second Follow-up Data File User's Manual, 1986, Washington, DC: National Center for Educational Statistics.

Figure 5. Career aspirations as graduates.




## Legend

1 = Low-Status Professionals
2 = High-Status Professionals
3 = Technical
4 = Teachers
5 = Business
6 = Operatives
7 = Sales
8 = Service
9 = Labor
M = Military
N = Not Working

Note. From High School and Beyond 1980 Sophomore Cohort Second Follow-up Data File User's Manual, 1986, Washington, DC: National Center for Educational Statistics.